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ABSTRACT

This study guide was prepared to assist trained teachers of English to speakers of other languages (ESOL) who work with students at the beginning and intermediate levels. These teachers have had graduate courses in descriptive linguistics, phonology, syntax, morphology, and methodology of teaching English to speakers of other languages. The guide includes a brief history of teaching English in the United States; suggested procedures in conducting an adult class; outline of curriculum for beginning and intermediate classes; an introduction to phonology; brief descriptions of the audio-lingual approach, the cognitive-code approach, and the eclectic approach; brief discussions of the four language skills; testing and evaluation; and a seven-page bibliography on general linguistics and ESOL. (Author/CFM)

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Department of Adult Education

Norma C. Day, Director

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Study Guide for Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

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Montgomery County Public Schools
Rockville, Maryland

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Superintendent of Schools

MONTGOMERY COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS
Rockville, Maryland
Department of Adult Education

STUDY GUIDE

for

TEACHING ENGLISH

to

SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

March 1975

Norma C. Day
Director

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INTRODUCTION

This study guide has been prepared to assist trained ESOL teachers in the ESOL (English to Speakers of Other Languages) program of the Department of Adult Education who are working with students at the beginning and intermediate levels. Trained teachers have had graduate courses in descriptive linguistics, phonology, syntax, morphology, and methodology of teaching English to speakers of other languages.

Since this guide is not an introduction to the teaching of English to speakers of other languages, two books are recommended:

> Stevick, Earl W. Helping People Learn English: A Manual for Teachers of English as a Second Language. New York and Nashville: Abingdon Press, 1957.
>
> Finocchiaro, Mary. English as a Second Language: From Theory to Practice. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1964.

These books are mentioned as a starting point. The next recommended step is a master's degree in linguistics.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF TEACHING ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

Teaching English to speakers of other languages is not new in our land. The English settlers in Virginia evidently taught Pocahontas to speak English. Her name appears in the Generall Historie published in 1624. Before 1624 Pocahontas had saved Captain John Smith's life on two occasions, had been converted to Christianity, had married John Rolfe, and had been accepted in England. Unfortunately, we don't know the methods used in teaching Pocahontas. In Massachusetts the situation was different. John Eliot, who had probably entered the ministry of the Anglican Church and then became a Puritan, emigrated to Boston in 1631. With the idea of converting the Indians, he began translating the Bible into the Massachusetts dialect of the Algonquin language. In 1646 he preached to the Indians in their own language. In 1671 Eliot printed in English Indian Dialogues and in 1672 Logick Primer. These were the first ESOL texts printed in the colonies.

In 1834 the first evening school in the United States was set up in Louisville, Kentucky, for the purpose of helping the immigrants learn English. As early as 1905 the public night schools in Washington, D.C., organized one class to teach English to foreign-born men and women. That one class has expanded into the Americanization School, now located at 3331 Prospect Street, NW, Washington, D.C. 20007.

The ESOL program in the Department of Adult Education, Montgomery County Public Schools, began in 1950 and was combined with an Americanization course. Beginning in 1961, ESOL classes were conducted separately.

PROCEDURES IN ADULT CLASSES

1. Begin classes on time. Make the first minutes meaningful. Vary the opening gambit from day to day; review the previous lesson but use additional vocabulary; discuss the weather; summarize the news events; and go over homework with the group.

2. Do not interrupt the class to greet latecomers. The latecomers must learn to enter the room quietly. (Newcomers can be seated; the teacher can register the newcomers at the break.)

3. Coordinate break time with other teachers in the hall. Do not extend the break time for any reason. It may be necessary to take a bell or an alarm clock to class.

4. Dismiss the class on time. Allow ten minutes or more to make or repeat the assignment.

5. Present new and difficult material during the first hour. Students may be too tired to concentrate on new concepts late in the class period.

6. Drill each concept. Include each student in the drills--but not every student in every drill. Drill in random order to keep the students alert and thinking.

7. Be sure that each student has a chance to use each concept in a meaningful language situation. Write drills related to the professions, interests, and needs of the students.

8. For a change of pace, use word games or shift to a lesson in geography, arithmetic, history, holidays, or any subject which is of special interest to the class.

9. Assign homework at all levels. The homework for beginners may be copying. The homework may be a completion drill; in this case the drill must be worked on in class before it is assigned as homework. The teacher should suggest that the students read aloud for five minutes every day. The students should read material which has been read silently, which has been discussed, and which has been drilled in class.

10. Provide visual clues for the students: realia, flash cards, pictures, printed words. The 1975 (also 1973 and 1974) theory is that students should see the material they are trying to pronounce. The teacher may introduce new words or sounds by uttering them herself, and she may drill the new words orally before she writes them. But the student writes the new words before leaving the classroom.

11. Avoid translating. The students should hear only English. In a bilingual class, the teacher or the students may translate at times. In a multilingual class, the teacher must be adamant about the no-translation edict.

12. Encourage regular attendance. If a student is absent two times in succession, telephone to ask the reason for the absence and tell the student what material has been covered in class.

13. Review the lessons. Tie each lesson to the preceding lesson and review related units.

CURRICULUM

BEGINNING

The subject matter which the students may expect to encounter at the beginning level will enable them to understand spoken English and to speak clearly enough to communicate with native English speakers in everyday situations. At the close of the beginning course, the students should be able to read easy or simplified material, fill out ordinary forms, and write simple sentences. Their curriculum will include:

A. Beginning I (low beginners)

1. Use of the word BE in .... short answers
2. Use of the world NOT in .... with BE
3. Subject, object, and possessive forms of personal pronouns

4. Demonstrative adjectives and pronouns
5. Demonstrative adverbs HERE and THERE
6. Function subject IT
7. Definite and indefinite articles
8. Predicate adjectives
9. Phrases of place with IN, ON, AT, FROM, BY
10. Singular and plural forms of nouns
11. TOO and EITHER
12. Letters of English alphabet
13. Seasons, months, days
14. Cardinal numbers to 30
15. Polite commands
16. Courtesy formulas, titles, forms of address

B. Beginning II (high beginners)

1. Present progressive tense forms
2. Future with BE GOING TO
3. Present tense forms of common verbs (DO, DOES)
4. Predeterminers
5. Additional indefinite articles
6. Phrases of time with IN, ON, AT, BY, BEFORE, AFTER, UNTIL
7. Past tense forms of BE
8. Adverbs of frequency
9. Mass and count nouns
10. Common and proper nouns
11. SOME, ANY
12. Stative verbs
13. Cardinal numbers to 1,000
14. Ordinal numbers to 100
15. Possessive pronouns
16. Anticipatory subject THERE
17. Past tense forms of regular verbs (DID)
18. Past tense forms of common irregular verbs
19. Adverbs with suffix - LY
20. Possessive forms of nouns

INTERMEDIATE

Students who have mastered the beginning curriculum during their first year (or more) of study may be promoted to the intermediate level. Adults who have studied English in their own countries may be admitted to the intermediate course at the discretion of the intermediate teacher.

Upon satisfactory completion of the intermediate level, students may expect to communicate adequately in almost all social and job situations. They should be able to express themselves clearly in English; read directions, advertisements, newspapers, and magazines; write short paragraphs and letters; and cope with employment applications and examinations. Their work includes:

A. Intermediate I (low intermediates)

1. Perfect tense forms with HAVE
2. Time expressions with SINCE, FOR, etc.

3. Modal auxiliaries
4. Indirect object shift
5. Tag questions
6. Noun adjuncts
7. Reflexive pronouns
8. Comparison of adjectives and adverbs
9. Infinitive complements
10. Adverbial clauses
11. LET'S
12. SHALL in questions with I, we

B. Intermediate II (high intermediates)

1. Extended modal expressions
2. Extended perfect tenses
3. Sequence of modifiers before nouns
4. "Two-word verbs"
5. Passive constructions
6. Conditional clauses
7. Subordinate adjective clauses
8. Subordinate noun clauses
9. Gerunds

PHONOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The sound system must be taught at all levels of instruction. Few adults can ever hope to attain perfect mastery, and all have to work very hard to make the distinctions of sounds. stress, intonation, and rhythm which have become largely unconscious with native speakers.

Each student must be able to hear, identify, and imitate the following distinctive sounds of English:

Stressed Syllable Nuclei

/i/ in bit
/e/ in bet
/æ/ in bat
/a/ in pot
/ə/ in but
/ɔ/ in bought
/u/ in book

/iy/ in beat
/ey/ in bait
/ay/ in bite
/ɔy/ in boy
/aw/ in bout
/ow/ in boat
/uw/ in boot
/yuw/ in beauty
/ər/ in Bert

Consonants in Initial, Medial, and Final Positions

/p/ in pat, happen, tap
/b/ in bad, rubber, cab
/t/ in tap, patter, pat
/d/ in dog, ladder, bad

/k/ in cat, soccer, tack

/g/ in get, bigger, rag

/f/ in fat, offer, staff

/v/ in vat, river, five

/θ/ in thin, bath

/ð/ in this, rather, bathe

/s/ in sat, racer, pass

/z/ in zip, razor, has

/š/ in ship, issue, rash

/ž/ in fusion

/č/ in chip, etching, rich

/ǰ/ in jam, edging, ridge

/m/ in mad, hammer, from

/n/ in not, inner, can

/ŋ/ in hanger, sing

/r/ in run, parent, far

/l/ in line, roller, fill, call

/w/ in want, away

/y/ in yes, player

/h/ in have, ahead

Note: The phonemic symbols /between slant marks/ are for the teacher's convenience, not for recognition and use by the students. The teacher does not attempt to teach all symbols for sounds. Common English spellings of the sound under consideration should be taught to and used by the students.

Robert A. Hall's Sound and Spelling in English[1] is a good source book to use.

Consonant Clusters

Initial clusters include:

/pl, pr, bl, br, tr, tw, dr, dw, kl, kr, kw, gl, gr, fl, fr, θr, θw, sl, sk, skr, skw, sp, spr, st, sw, str, sm, sn, šr, hw/

Final clusters are usually more difficult:

/pt, pst, bd, bz, ts, dz, kt, kst, gz, gd, θs, fs, vz, ft, vd, rd, rθ, rθs, rds, st, sts, rsts, sks, sps, sks, skt, zd, ct, čt, št, ǰd, md, mpt, mpst, nd, ns, nst, nθs, ndθ, ŋk, ŋz, ŋks, ŋkt, ld, lz, ls, lt, rnd, rnt/

Syllabic consonants, usually final /l/ and /n/, must be taught:

/pl, bl, dl, tl, kl, gl, sl, zl, pn, bn, dn, tn, kn, sn, zn, zm, tm/

Native Language Interference

The language backgrounds of students interfere with second language learning in ways which are often predictable. All students need to work on vocalic sounds, consonants, stress, intonation, assimilation, and juncture. In addition, certain frequently encountered troublesome sounds and contrasts will require extra attention. Naturally not all students encounter all the interference problems listed for their native languages. The following examples of difficulties are from lists compiled by experienced teachers.

ARABIC

/i/ and /iy/; /e/ and /ey/; /æ/ and /e/; /a/ and /ə/; /ow/ and /oy/; /u/ and /ə/; /u/ and /uw/; /k/ and /g/; /s/, /č/, /ǰ/, /š/; /b/ and /p/

1. Robert A. Hall, Jr., Sound and Spelling in English (Philadelphia: Chilton Books, 1961).

CHINESE

all diphthongs; /e/ and /ey/; /a/ and /ə/; /æ/ and /e/; /ŋ/ and /n/; /d/ and /t/; /ž/, /š/, /ž/, /č/; /θ/ and /ð/; final consonants; medial /b/, /t/, /f/; initial clusters with /r/ and /l/; stress and intonation

FRENCH

/i/ and /iy/; /e/ and /ey/; /a/ and /ə/; /a/ and /aw/; /o/ and /ow/; /h/; /r/; /č/; /j/; /z/ and /s/; /θ/; /ð/; all nasals

GERMAN

/a/ and /ə/; /o/ and /ɔ/; /æ/ and /a/; /ər/; /r/; /θ/; /ð/; /z/; /ž/; /h/; /w/ and /v/; final voiced consonants

GREEK

/i/ and /iy/; /e/ and /ey/; /a/ and /ə/; /u/ and /uw/; /n/ and /ŋ/; /j/; /ž/; /ž/; /š/; /k/; /v/; /d/ and /ð/; palatal and velar stops

HEBREW

all vowels except /æ/; /j/, /č/, /š/, /ž/; /v/ and /w/; /n/ and /ŋ/; /h/, /w/, /v/; /f/ and /θ/

IRANIAN

/e/ and /æ/; /a/ and /ə/; /i/ and /iy/; /e/ and /ey/; /u/ and /uw/; /ow/ and /aw/; medial /ŋ/; /v/ and /w/; /θ/ and /ð/; final clusters

ITALIAN

all diphthongs; /ə/, /a/, /o/; /h/, /r/; /w/; intonation

JAPANESE

/i/ and /iy/; /e/ and /ey/; /a/ and /ə/; /æ/ and /a/; /o/ and /ow/; /u/ and /uw/; /g/ and /ŋ/; /f/ and /h/; /j/; /l/; /r/; /b/ and /r/;

/θ/ and /ð/; /z/ and /ž/; /š/ and /č/; /t/ and /ts/; all /r/ clusters; intonation; initial /y/; aspirated /ə/; fixed extended mandible

KOREAN

/i/ and /iy/; /e/ and /ey/; /æ/ and /a/; /ə/ and /ɔ/; /j/; /g/ and /ŋ/; /g/ and /k/; /θ/; /ð/; /s/ and /š/; /ǰ/ and /č/; /s/ and /z/; /h/ and /w/; /b/, /p/, /v/; /f/, /w/, /θ/; /l/ and /r/; intonation

POLISH

all diphthongs; /æ/ and /a/; /ə/ and /a/; /j/; /z/; /θ/; /ð/; /w/ and /v/; final stops following consonants

PORTUGUESE (BRAZIL)

/a/ and /æ/; /a/ and /ə/; /a/ and /ɔ/; /u/ and /uw/; /e/ and /ey/; /uw/ and /yuw/; initial /r/ and /h/; medial /r/; /n/ and /ŋ/; /š/ and /č/; final unstressed syllables; stress and intonation; all consonant clusters

RUSSIAN

/e/ and /ey/; /a/ and /æ/; /a/ and /ə/; /a/ and /aw/; /f/; /w/; /w/; /s/ and /z/; /l/; /ð/; /θ/; /h/; devoicing final stops; palatalized /l/, /n/, /d/, /t/ before front vowel

TURKISH

all vowels; /e/; /k/ and /g/ before /e/; /w/ and /v/; final voiced consonants

SCANDINAVIAN

all diphthongs; /e/ and /æ/; /a/ and /ə/; /ǰ/ and /y/; /w/ and /v/; /č/ and /š/; /θ/; /ð/; /r/; /ŋ/; final /d/ after consonant; intonation

SPANISH

/ɨ/ and /iy/; /e/ and /ey/; /æ/ and /a/; /a/ and /ə/; /a/ and /ɔ/; /u/ and /uw/; /č/, /š/, /ǰ/; /s/ and /z/; /y/ and /ǰ/; /b/ and /v/; initial clusters with /s/ followed by consonant; final voiced consonants; final /m/, /n/, /ŋ/; /w/ and /gw/

Word Stress

The student must distinguish the primary stress in words of more than one syllable.

You need a pérmit to park here.

They permit parking here.

Sentence Stress

At least four degrees of stress may be demonstrated in English sentences: primary (ˊ), secondary (ˆ), tertiary (ˇ), and unstress (˘).

Hànd mĕ thĕ bóok.

Hând mè thĕ bóok. (Don't throw it.)

Hànd mê thĕ bóok. (Not the paper.)

Hànd mé thĕ bôok. (Don't give it to someone else.)

Stress-timed Rhythm

A source of difficulty for most students is the way English crowds its syllables between the heaviest stresses in order to maintain the timing of the utterance.

Hánd him the bóok.

Hánd your fáther the new boók.

Please hánd your old fáther the interesting new bóok.

Please go ahead and hánd your poor old gray-haired fáther the interesting new paperback boók.

Contractions

The contracted forms of spoken English follow naturally when they are treated as consequences of stress-timed rhythm.

No, it's nót. No, it ísn't.

Reduced Vocalics

Syllabic nuclei which do not receive heavy stress tend to be articulated toward the mid central lax unrounded position /ə/, called the neutral vowel or schwa. Students need a great deal of practice in listening to these altered sounds. They also need to be reassured that this vowel gradation is not substandard or vulgar usage. The teacher needs to bear in mind that overarticulation and unnatural breaking of syllables in words or sentences (as when repeating a word as a citation form with even primary stress on each syllable) produces confused students who cannot understand English outside the classroom.

Intonation

The importance of intonation in English cannot be overemphasized. Pitch patterns are one way of conveying attitudes; and a student may unintentionally signal disbelief, uncertainty, questioning, or even rudeness by using equivocal pitch patterns. The result may be irritation or blocked communication in a situation of personal importance to the student.

Intonation patterns for recognition and production include the common falling, rising, and sustained level contours.

Rising-falling:

He caught the bus. Where did he catch it?

Rising:

Did he get a transfer? Was he in a hurry?

Sustained level:

He paid the driver a quarter, a dime, and a nickel.

Excuse me, please.

Good morning, Mr. Jones.

Well, all right, let's go.

GENERAL METHODOLOGY

The two major approaches to language learning that have dominated the field of second language learning are the "audio-lingual" approach and the "cognitive-code" approach.

AUDIO-LINGUAL APPROACH

The former is the older of the two schools of thought, having been generated out of the structural linguistics and behavioralist psychology of the twenties and thirties. In the "audio-lingual" method (ALM), language is considered little more than learned responses to external stimuli. The student is expected to induce the rules of the target language through intensive pattern practice. Throughout this process the student is a "passive" learner in that grammar and meaning are not explained; his role is simply to mimic the teacher and give appropriate responses to varied stimuli. Speech is the primary element of this approach, and the role of meaning is only of secondary importance.

COGNITIVE-CODE APPROACH

The "cognitive-code" method is based upon the transformational-generative theory of grammar and Gestalt psychology. Unlike the "audio-lingual" method, it emphasizes the mental processes involved in language learning. Thus, the student's understanding of structure is more important than the actual manipulation of structure. Knowledge of the rules of the target language is the foundation upon which the language "habits" are formed. These habits are formed through the learner's generalizations of grammatical rules. The creative nature of language is underscored, and the learner becomes an "active" participant in the acquisition of the language. He is always made aware of the rules and processes involved in structural changes, and he also is aware of the meanings of utterances before he practices them. He is encouraged to deduce regular grammatical patterns in the target language.

Most language teachers nowadays are aware of the inadequacies of a single-minded doctrinaire approach to their classroom teaching and have become more eclectic. In any approach used in the teaching of adults, there are many factors for the teacher to consider when formulating teaching strategies. ESOL instructors are usually faced with an extremely heterogeneous group--heterogeneous in age, language background, English proficiency, literacy levels, socio-economic levels, and language needs. It is obvious that a variety of approaches to the teaching of English to adults is necessary.

ECLECTIC APPROACH

Recent trends in methodological theory point toward a combination of language learning theories, taking from each what are considered to be the best techniques. Some general characteristics of the "compromise" include short grammar explanations. (The student is given these explanations of the grammatical process which is to be internalized.) The explanations are then followed by much oral practice. The student also has knowledge of the meaning of the locutions and structures which he is practicing. Therefore, the practice is meaningful to him; and he is able to make generalizations about the structural patterns of the target language.

Reading and writing are introduced early in the student's training. Early practice of these skills is necessary for the adult learner, and reading and writing have proven to be valuable tools for the reinforcement of language "habits." When teaching these two skills, the teacher should remember that students should read and write that material which has been covered in class.

The adult education ESOL instructor must also be aware that adult learners often have diverse goals and expectations of ESOL instruction. Some come to class wanting training in only one of the four skill areas, some need basic survival English, others need help for citizenship courses, and some expect specialized language training as preparation for college or university work. Another important factor which affects teaching strategies is the irregular attendance of some adult education ESOL students. The attendance problem may impede the orderly, sequential presentation of material. The instructor must include review as an essential element of his lesson plan. It is important that the adult education ESOL instructor review previous lessons not only because irregular attendance patterns warrant such practice but also because adult learners need constant reinforcement of previously covered material.

THE FOUR SKILLS

Any teaching approach must involve the development of the four language skills--speaking, listening, reading, and writing. All of these skills must be internalized through meaningful, intensive practice. The order of presentation of these skills will be determined by the need of the students in each class. However, oral communication and listening comprehension are the primary objectives of most adult education ESOL classes. In all cases emphasis should be placed on meaningful practice at all levels. The ESOL teacher should endeavor to provide all the assistance necessary for the understanding of concepts and structures. At the elementary level of instruction, this should involve the extensive use of pictures and other realia to convey meaning.

Some techniques involved in a balanced teaching approach follow. They have been divided into the four skill areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Many of these techniques involve the development of more than one skill. The examples and techniques given have proved successful. They are not intended to be comprehensive.

Listening

Listening competence depends on three components: (1) the students' ability to distinguish sounds in English and to discriminate between them and the sounds of their own languages, (2) their development of an auditory memory of English words and phrases, and (3) the students' ability to understand the context of the material. Teachers must be aware that most beginning students have short attention spans and may have poor listening habits in general. In the initial stages of learning, listening must be as <u>actively</u> practiced as speaking. Some methods for classroom training of listening skills follow.

<u>Sound Discrimination</u>

Sound discrimination is taught simultaneously with sound production, but it is not an automatic process. Drills contrasting English sounds with the sounds in the students' native languages which are causing interference are helpful to

students having difficulty discriminating. The teacher can refer to the lists on pp. 7-10 and offer examples and drills to point out sound distinctions. However, most minimal pair drills should be made between sounds of English which are quite similar.

Minimal Pair Drills

Minimal pairs (pairs of words that differ only in the single sound being studied) can be useful for training students to listen and differentiate between the sounds.

1. The instructor writes minimal pairs on the board and repeats them several times, pointing to the sounds being contrasted: pit/pet, hid/head, sit/set, pin/pen.

2. Then she indicates that the sound /i/ will be represented by number I, and the sound /e/ by number II.

3. The sounds are uttered in varying order; students tell the number order in which they heard them. Then only one word of the pair is uttered, and the students try to respond with the appropriate number.

4. This is carried further to train students to distinguish between the sounds in a sentence: "I like your pin" or "I like your pen."

A good exposition of minimal pair drill technique may be found in Stevick's A Workbook in Language Teaching, pp. 53-58.[2]

Auditory Memory

Training in auditory memory is necessary if the students are to hold any messages in their minds. In the early stages, sentences for illustration would be quite short and subject to simple "tests" of comprehension.

Executing Orders

1. The teacher gives a series of commands to the class. Students perform each act as rapidly as possible: "Stand up, turn around, raise your right hand, etc."

2. For more advanced students, the teacher gives a long complicated set of directions to various individual students: "Please go to the radiator, turn it off, and then take the blue book from the shelf and give it to me."

3. The teacher distributes maps of a city. She gives the students a series of directions and asks where they are on their maps.

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2. Earl W. Stevick, A Workbook in Language Teaching (New York and Nashville: Abingdon Press, 1963), pp. 53-58.

Distinguishing Structure Signals

Students can be made aware of structure signals if they are asked to listen for and indicate particular distinctions. The teacher reads a list of words, and students are asked to mark on a piece of paper if they are singular or plural. A series of sentences is given in the present or past tense, and students indicate in writing which tense they heard. Students are asked to write short answers to information questions.

Listening for Context

1. Using cue cards or wall charts, the teacher makes statements and the students answer "yes" or "no" to indicate if the statement is appropriate or not: "The little baby is driving a car." "It's a rainy/sunny day."

2. Witnout visual clues, the teacher makes statements to which the students will usually react if they understand: "English is a very easy language; Washington, D.C., is so cold in the summer that I'm going to go to Alaska." "There isn't any traffic on Georgia Avenue in the morning."

3. The telephone causes many problems for students, so the teacher can give home assignments for the students to call the weather report number or "Dial a Museum"; and students report what they have heard in the next class.

4. After reading a short passage or telling a story similar to material already covered, the teacher asks simple and then more complicated questions on context, which can be answered orally or in writing.

5. Dictation is always a good way of determining comprehension. In the beginning classes, a sound technique is to use "programmed dictation." The teacher reads a short sentence, students write what they hear on paper, and then the teacher immediately writes the correct model on the board.

One general rule in helping students build their listening comprehension is that the teacher should not repeat her questions and comments. Teachers who repeat their utterances a dozen times find their students stop listening altogether. If one student did not understand something, the chances are good that someone else did, and the informed person should be allowed to repeat the information. Joan Morley has pointed out many excellent techniques in developing listening skills in Improving Aural Comprehension.[3]

Speaking

Speech Patterns

The teacher provides an accurate model of English speech for the students to hear and imitate. When presenting the model, the teacher should be careful neither to alter normal conversational speed and rhythm nor to distort the sounds. Excessively slow speech tends toward heavy stress for each syllable, a "counting" type

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3. Joan Morley, Improving Aural Comprehension (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1972).

of intonation, overarticulation of unstressed vowels, and inappropriate sound variants of consonants. Assimilation and juncture are likewise distorted.

It is equally important to curtail the use of the student's native language in the ESOL classroom. Use of the native language reinforces interference and wastes the adult's precious classroom time.

Articulatory Helps

Articulatory description of sounds is usually difficult for beginners to understand. Mirrors, charts, and cardboard cutouts of the vocal apparatus can help the student acquire the proper positions of the mouth parts. Adult language students have lost some degree of auditory acuity, so the use of visual aids is even more important. In this case, the common terminology for the parts of the mouth may be taught first, in order that articulatory diagrams (rather than written words) may offer visual clues. Stevick's A Workbook in Language Teaching,[4] is a good source of diagrams for this purpose.

Pronunciation Drills

It is best to use phrases and sentences in drilling productive pronunciation. Single words and isolated sounds are of limited value to students who are struggling with the phonetic patterns of connected speech. The teacher may ask for listening and mimicry of an isolated sound but does not require students to learn isolated sounds or sound contrasts. Common words provide one-syllable examples which are useful for drills, with easy consonant sounds in initial position.

The teaching of pronunciation can be integrated with the rest of the elements of a well-planned lesson. Practice with sounds, stress, and intonation can and should be presented in clear, effective, meaningful context. The students can then perceive the consequences of misunderstanding, maintain simultaneous attention to content and articulation, and increase their chances for successful face-to-face communication outside the classroom. In the ideal instance, a specific contrast for study can be a minimal pair which is grammatically balanced and relevant to everyday experience. It can, in addition, offer reading clues if it exemplifies spelling regularities.

Contextualizing Pronunciation Practice

A minimal pair suitable to use for the /i/v./iy/ contrast would be fill/feel in a situation at a service station. The teacher might construct a dialog using grammar structures appropriate to the class level:

Customer: Would you fill the tank for me please?
Attendant: Yes, sir. What'll I fill it with?
Customer: (Fill it) with regular (gas), (please).

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4. Stevick, pp. 19-51.

C: Would you fill the battery for me, please?
A: Yes, sir. What'll I fill it with?
(What shall I fill it with?)
(What should I fill it with?)
(What do you want me to fill it with?)

C: (Fill it) with distilled water, please.

C: Would you fill the radiator for me, please?
A: Yes, sir. What do you want in it?
C: Zerox antifreeze, please.

C: Would you (fill/feel) the radiator for me?
A: Yes, sir. What'll I (fill/feel) it with?
C: (With your hand./With antifreeze.)

C: Would you clean the windshield, please? (It's filthy.)
A: Yes, sir. It's really easy to clean.
You can clean it inside, too, if you use this piece of treated paper.

C: Would you (fill/feel the (_____) for me?
A: Do you want me to fill it, or feel it?
(Does it need filling or feeling?)
(Why? Is it hot, or is it empty?)
(I can't fill it without the keys.)
(Please give me the keys.) (Almost a minimal pair with kiss.)

Sometimes it is a good idea to stop the participants and ask the class for a vote at critical points: "Did he say fill or feel? How many heard fill? How many heard feel?" The teacher then indicates which English sound she heard.

Similarly, teaching initial /h/ v. /ø/ might involve magazine pictures of one person cooking canned soup and another eating it. Oral practice might be built around sentences like the following:

1. What's (he/she) doing? (Heating it. Eating it.)
2. First she heats it, then he eats it.
3. Where (does/did) (he/she) (heat/eat) it?*
(Dining room/kitchen)

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*For an advanced class, the loss of initial /h/ in does he might be worked on.

4. How (does/did) (he/she) (heat/eat) it?* (Stove/spoon)
5. What (does/did) (he/she) (heat/eat) it in?* (Pot/bowl)
6. If the soup is cold, what does (he/she)do?*
7. What does the soup need, heating or eating?
8. What will happen if he/she eats it before he/she heats it?
9. If the soup is too cold, what does he/she say to the cook?*
10. (For French students) In your country, do you usually heat the Vichyssoise before you eat it? Explain.
11. How long must we heat canned soup before eating it, in order to destroy the botulism toxin? (Fifteen minutes at 212° F.)

Other pronunciation problems (for example, confusion between /i/ and /iy/, as in heat and hit) may become apparent to the teacher as the practice proceeds. Such a contrast may then become the subject of a later lesson.

If a contrast is sufficiently difficult to require the preparation of this type of lesson, the prepared material will be used often. Maybe newer and harder grammatical constructions will be incorporated in the practice. In most of the cases pronunciation practice will eventually produce the desired perceptual and productive result.

Teaching Dialogues

The dialogue is an ordered conversation between two or more persons. It should be short and reinforce lexical or structural items which have been or are to be introduced in class. It is important to personalize dialogues wherever possible to create more meaningful situations for the students. The suggested model for teaching dialogues which follows is based on two assumptions: first, that the students will not be responsible for dialogue memorization and second, they will be permitted to use their books while practicing the dialogue.

Model for Teaching

1. The instructor reads the complete dialogue. Students follow. During the reading it is important for the teacher to maintain the proper pitch, stress, and intonation patterns as well as a normal reading speed.

2. The instructor reads each line; students repeat chorally. This step may be repeated until an acceptable level of proficiency with the locution is reached.

3. The instructor explains meaning and answers questions of structure when asked, but explanations should be kept short.

4. The instructor divides the class into groups. The students in each group repeat lines of the dialogue after the instructor. After practice the students say the dialogue without teacher guidance.

5. The instructor chooses individuals to say the dialogue without teacher guidance. At this point a dramatization of the dialogue is possible.

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*For an advanced class, the loss of initial /h/ in does he might be worked on.

Vanishing Technique

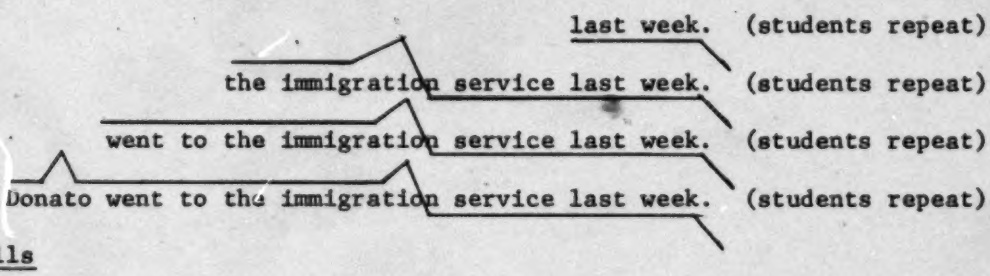
The vanishing technique is a valuable tool which enables the student to recognize various grammatical functions which the dialogue highlights. The following procedure is used:

1. The instructor follows the model for teaching dialogues as explained above.
2. The instructor writes the dialogue on the board.
3. The class practices the dialogue. The instructor chooses individuals to read parts with emphasis on fluency and pronunciation. At this time he may point out specific grammatical functions which are germane to the lesson.
4. Grammatically important words are erased. The students are expected to practice the dialogue orally, filling in the blanks with the correct grammatical structure. Only one grammatical function should be taken away at a time. Examples of such functions are much, many, some, any, indefinite or definite articles, this, that, and plurals.

Backward Build-Up

Backward build-up is a useful tool to aid the students with unusually difficult utterances. It is particularly useful with longer utterances which students are unable to reproduce in their entirety. It is also useful to reinforce terminal intonation patterns. In essence this technique is little more than an additive drill. The following procedure is followed:

Problem utterance: Donato went to the immigration service last week.


T: last week. (students repeat)
T: the immigration service last week. (students repeat)
T: went to the immigration service last week. (students repeat)
T: Donato went to the immigration service last week. (students repeat)

Pattern Drills

Pattern drills are important vehicles through which students can gain an understanding of structure and learn how to apply their knowledge to new language situations. The use of specific drills will depend upon the structure to be practiced and mastered and the proficiency level of the students with the particular structure. During the use of pattern drills, the instructor should maintain normal speed and intonation. He should explain very carefully what responses are expected from the students.

The mechanics of teaching structure through drills has several phases:

1. Two-phase drill
   T: John is a student. They
   S: They are students.
   T: Mary is a teacher. We
   S: We are teachers.

2. Three-phase drill
   T: Maria is from Mexico. We
   S: We are from Mexico.
   T: We are from Mexico. (Students listen to correct response.)

3. Four-phase drill
   T: She's at the doctor's office. Joe
   S: Joe's at the doctor's office.
   T: Joe's at the doctor's office.
   S: Joe's at the doctor's office. (Students repeat the teacher's model.)

The four-phase drill is the most useful in that it gives the students an opportunity to give a response to the initial drill item and then to hear and mimic the native speaker response.

In the interest of conserving space, the examples of drills which follow are given in the two-phase format:

1. Repetition

   This type of drill is useful for the acquisition of segmental and supra-segmental features of English and involves a repetition of the teacher's utterance.

   Example:
   T: The food is on the table.
   S: The food is on the table.

2. Substitution

   This drill is useful to give the students word position practice.

   Example:
   T: He's at the post office (library).
   S: He's at the library.
   T: embassy
   S: He's at the embassy.

3. Multiple-Slot Substitution

   This is a useful drill to teach word functions in English. It tests the student's ability to recognize parts of speech and their order or "slots."

   Example:
   T: She works at the consulate (university).
   S: She works at the university.
   T: He
   S: He works at the university.

4. Transformation

This drill is useful to develop the student's cognitive skills. It requires the student to make a structural change by applying a rule which generates the desired structure. These drills are very useful when used with verb tenses, negation, questions, and all pronouns (indirect, direct, subject, double object constructions).

Examples:

T: Ari rides home every night (yesterday).
S: Ari rode home yesterday.

T: Gakina was in class last night. (question)
S: Was Gakina in class last night?

5. Pair-sentence

These drills are useful when teaching the following structures in English: relative pronouns, "if" clauses, and temporal adverbs. The process involves the construction of one complete sentence from two.

Example:

T: The teacher works at night. I know the teacher.
S: The teacher that I know works at night.

6. Additive

Involves the addition of a word or phrase to an existing sentence. It is useful when introducing frequency words (never, often, sometimes), adverbs, and adjectives.

Example:

T: Ali drives to work. (usually)
S: Ali usually drives to work.

7. Analogy

Used with tag-questions which require the student to make a correct transformation involving specified parts of speech (or patterns of speech).

Examples:

T: Inga went to work early, and you? (teacher emphasizes TOO)
S: I went to work early, too.

T: They speak English well. How about John?
S: John speaks English well, too. (teacher emphasizes present tense and TOO)

8. Question-answer chain drill

This "chain" drill gives each student a chance to elicit and give responses. It provides for maximum student participation and a high degree of personalization.

Example:

T: Do you have any stamps?
S: Yes, I have some stamps. Do you have any stamps?
S_2: Yes, I have some stamps.
T: Money
S_2: Do you have any money?
S_3: Yes, I have some money. etc.

Reading

The ESOL teacher needs to have some idea of the students' literacy skills in their own languages so that he can help the students learn to read and write in English everything they can say in English. Reading, as a receptive skill, will generally precede writing.

Survival Reading

All students, whatever their level of instruction, need certain basic survival reading in order to function adequately in their daily activities in this country. They need to read public signs and notices, particularly those which apply to emergency situations and personal safety. There are labels, instructions, maps, geographical directions, time tables, directories, store catalogs, official forms, and business documents to be dealt with.

Four lists of high frequency reading items are appended at the end of the section on reading. These lists are for the teacher's use.

Teaching Techniques - General Procedure

When commencing reading practice, it is important that the student develop some sense of the English letter-sound correspondences. The learner must know that a single English letter or combination of letters can represent more than one sound. The first step is to indicate and demonstrate this fact. The following procedure is recommended for this initial reading practice:

1. The teacher reads the text. Students follow silently.

2. The teacher reads the text, stopping after each sentence or phrase to explain structure or meaning.

3. The teacher reads the text, and then the students repeat each sentence or phrase. The entire reading selection is covered in this way.

4. The teacher assigns individuals to read sentences or paragraphs, depending upon the proficiency of the student.

It is important to remember that any reading selection must draw upon the experience or cultural background of the student. If it does not, the selection will be meaningless to him. In such cases where the student has no background, the teacher must provide for a presentation which will familiarize the student with the topic.

Directed Reading Activity

1. Motivation

   The teacher prepares materials and activities which are designed to stimulate student interest in the topic of the reading selection. During this readiness activity, a presentation of the key vocabulary is made.

2. Purpose

   The teacher establishes with the students a purpose for reading the selection. The purpose can be phrased as a question.

3. Reading

   Students read silently to answer or define the purpose.

4. Question

   This phase is designed to test the comprehension of the students. The teacher formulates questions which the students must answer by citing the passages in the text which contain the answers. These questions can be either factual or draw on the students' ability to draw conclusions from a given body of material.

5. Lexical items

   Vocabulary is not covered until the above procedures are followed. The students are expected to develop their "word attack" skills by establishing meanings through context and structural analysis. However, explanation of specific lexical items may become necessary.

Language Experience Activity

1. The teacher prepares various "readiness" activities which relate to a specific topic. The class is to produce its own composition concerning the chosen topic. Ideas can be formulated through the use of pictures, films, and realia.

2. The students "orally" write their "story" which is copied verbatim by the teacher on the chalkboard. During this copying process, no structural or semantic errors are corrected.

3. After the story has been composed, the structure is corrected. This can be a class activity, where students are asked to provide alternatives to the incorrect structure or vocabulary.

4. The general procedure outlined above can then be employed when the story is corrected. Also, as a comprehension test, the "Cloze" technique (see below) can be used effectively.

SQ3R Approach

1. Skim

   The student skims the material to pick up the main idea of the selection and gain a general orientation to the subject matter. Particular attention is paid to paragraph headings, topic sentences, boldface type, pictures, and titles.

2. Question

   The students formulate questions individually which they believe to be relevant to the reading selection. These questions are based on the ideas gained from the skimming procedure.

3. Read

   The students read to answer questions about the reading selection.

4. Recite

   The students make their questions known to the class and read the passages in the reading selection where the answers can be found.

5. Review

   If a student has been unable to answer an appropriate question, he reviews the selection with teacher guidance to find the key passage. This question-answer review process can be carried out as a class activity.

Cloze Technique

This is a valuable tool to determine reading readiness and to test comprehension. The following procedure is followed:

1. A paragraph is drawn out of a reading selection which the class read or will read.

2. The first and last sentences of the paragraph are copied in their entirety. Every tenth word in the remaining text is deleted. If the tenth word is a proper noun or a number, the next word is deleted.

3. The student must fill in the blanks through the use of the contextual clues found within the body of the text.

4. If the Cloze exercise is used to test comprehension, the teacher has the option of supplying the missing words in the form of a list from which the students must choose appropriate answers.

If more than two-fifths of the blanks are answered incorrectly, the class is not ready for the reading selection and additional preparation must be given to the students.

Survival Reading--Signs in Buildings

admitting office
all services
apply at office
attendant on duty
authorized personnel only

cafeteria
cash only
cashier
checks cashed (here)
customer service

dentist
doctor
do not touch

elevator
emergency exit
emergency room
employees only
entrance
escape
exit

fallout shelter
fire alarm
fire escape
fire extinguisher
first aid
for rent

general admission
general delivery
gentlemen

hands off
help wanted
high voltage

in
information

keep away
keep closed
keep off
keep out

ladies
library

manager
men

next window
no admittance
no checks cashed
no credit
no dogs
no loitering
no minors
no smoking
no spitting
not responsible for loss
(or damage)

office
out
out of order
out to lunch

parcel post
pay phone
private
public telephone
pull
push

quiet

reading room
receptionist
register at desk
registry
reservations
restaurant

service elevator
shelter
shipping office
smoking prohibited
step down
superintendent

teller
tickets

use other door

visiting hours

waiting room
wanted
warning
watch your coat and hat
watch your step
wet paint
women

x-ray

Survival Reading--Labels

antidote

caution
combustible
contents under pressure

do not freeze
do not refreeze
do not use near open flame
dry clean only

external use only

flame retardant fabric
flammable
fragile

keep away from children
keep under refrigeration

instructions

machine washable

nonrefillable
not for internal use

poison(ous)

special delivery
special handling
store in cool place

take before meals
take only as directed
this end up
this side up

use before (date)
use in open air

Survival Reading--Signs for Pedestrians

beware the dog
bus station
bus stop

caution
closed
condemned

danger
deep water
don't walk

hazardous

keep away
keep off the grass
keep out

live wire

no agents
no dumping
no fires
no fishing
no hunting
no lifeguard on duty
no trespassing

off limits

pedestrians prohibited
police station
polluted
post no bills
private property

taxi stand
thin ice
trespassers will be prosecuted

walk

Survival Reading--Signs for Motorists

all-day meters
ave.

bicycle crossing
blvd.
blast[illegible]
bridge [illegible] first
bridge out
bridle path
bump
buses only

cattle crossing
caution
children at play
construction (ahead)
curve

danger
dead end
deer crossing
detour
dim lights
dip
divided highway begins
divided highway ends
do not block intersection
do not enter
drive slow

emergency vehicles only
end construction
exact change lane
exit

falling rocks
fasten seat belt
fog
flagman ahead
four-way stop
freeway

gate
go slow

hospital
hyw.

icy conditions

junction

keep left
keep right

lane ends
last chance for gas
left lane must turn left
left turn on signal
left turn advance
loading zone
lodging
look out for cars
listen

mechanic on duty
merge
merging traffic

new-cut road
no left turn
no parking
no passing (in tunnel)
no right turn
no standing
no stopping
no turns
no U-turns
not a thru street

one way

parking by permit only
pavement ends
ped x-ing
playground
prevent forest fires
private road

r.r. x-ing
railroad
ramp speed
rd.
rest rooms
resume speed
right lane must turn right
right turn only
road closed
road ends
rte.

school bus
school zone

service entrance
signal ahead
slide area
slippery when wet
slow
slower traffic keep right
snow emergency route
soft shoulders
speed checked by radar
stay in lane
steel plate
steep grade
stop
st.

three-way intersection
toll plaza
towaway zone
traffic circle
trucks entering highway
truck route

unpaved road
use lower gear

violators will be pros.
visitor parking

watch for flagman
watch for ice on road
wide load
winding road

yield (right of way)

Writing

Writing practice should begin with the first class. It is especially important for those students whose language is not represented graphically by the Roman alphabet.

Copying

This is the first step in writing which is to be used for those students who are unfamiliar with the written English alphabet. The primary stage involves mechanical practice: the tracing and reproduction of single letters. As the students gain a knowledge of the written letters, they expand to words and sentences which are copied from a text or copy book devised for handwriting practice.

Fill-ins

As the students progress and build an elementary vocabulary, they may use fill-in exercises not only to practice and perfect their writing skill but also to reinforce meaning and structure. The students are given a list of words from which they must choose an appropriate word for each blank.

Example:	ran	green	1. John runs _____.
	He	quickly	2. _____ likes bananas.
			3. Mary has a _____ book.
			4. They _____ to the park.

Sentence Completions

This is a primary step in guided writing. The students are given a sentence or a series of sentences which they must complete. They must use completions which are grammatically and semantically correct.

Example: Text: They're really beautiful _____.

$Student_1$: They're really beautiful mountains.

$Student_2$: They're really beautiful girls.

This technique can later be expanded to include short paragraphs:

John is a _____. He works at the _____.

After work he goes home and _____. Then he _____.

Before he goes to bed he _____. He goes to bed early because _____.

Survival Writing

Many adults need special training in order to complete common forms which are encountered in daily life. The ESOL instructor should take time to explain some of these forms. Among the most important of these forms are:

1. Driver's license applications
2. Job applications
3. Immigration forms
4. Credit applications
5. Banking forms
6. Social security applications
7. W-2 forms
8. Medicare forms
9. Income tax forms
10. Welfare forms/food stamp applications[5]

Transformations and Combinations

Two intermediate steps of guided writing are sentence transformations and combinations. The student must be able to make basic transformations of sentences such as declarative to interrogative or imperative. He must also be familiar with subordinating and coordinating conjunctions as well as relative clauses. Exercises can easily be provided by the teacher for such practice. Examples of exercises follow:

1. Written on board: John is a good student. John studies hard.

   Teacher's instructions: Join the two sentences by using a coordinating conjunction.

   Student's written response: John is a good student and he studies hard.

2. Written on board: Advertisements are sometimes dishonest. Advertisements must be read carefully.

   Teacher's instructions: Join the sentences by using a subordinating conjunction.

   Student's written response: Since advertisements are sometimes dishonest, they must be read carefully.

3. Written on board: Those men are always on time. Those men have the books.

   Teacher's instructions: Combine the sentences by using a relative pronoun and clause.

   Student's response: Those men who have the books are always on time.

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5. M. Goltry, Forms in Your Future (New York: Globe Book Co., 1972).

Guided Paragraph Development

Students are supplied with a topic sentence (usually written on the board) to which the class adds appropriate sentences to form a paragraph. Special attention is paid to sequencing of ideas. The paragraph is then scrambled and the students are required to reconstruct it.

Example: Teacher: John gets up early every morning.

Students: After he gets up he takes a shower. Then he eats breakfast. He must leave at 8:00 because his bus leaves at 8:15. He runs to the bus stop. He almost misses his bus. He arrives at work at 8:45.

Exercise: Put the sentences in order:

1. He must leave at 8:00 because his bus leaves at 8:15.
2. John gets up early every morning.
3. He arrives at work at 8:45.
4. Then he eats breakfast.
5. He almost misses his bus.
6. After he gets up, he takes a shower.
7. He runs to the bus stop.

Guided Composition

This technique includes a number of steps which lead up to self-expression. The first step usually involves the reading of a passage for comprehension. Students are then required to copy the passage in its entirety. They may then be asked to change one frequently occurring word in the passage to another similar word. They must rewrite the entire passage with each change. The following is a sample progression of activities in a guided composition program:

1. Copying of the passage in its entirety.

2. Copying of the entire passage replacing one lexical item with another similar item.

3. Copying of the passage changing a word which involves a grammatical change throughout the selection. Example: a boy to a girl. These changes can be made to reflect differences in person and tense.

4. Students can then be asked to combine sentences (relative clauses), change the selection from positive to negative (opposites), and be asked to substitute certain words with others of similar meaning.

5. The students are given a series of incomplete sentences to which they must affix appropriate endings. The completed paragraph must be semantically and grammatically correct.

6. Students are given a set of sentences. They must write one or more sentences after each sentence given. Ultimately the students have written one half of the paragraph.

7. Through a series of carefully graded questions, students are expected to answer the questions in paragraph form. They should be expected to give an accurate summary of the events or facts which are solicited.

The material used in a guided composition program should be based upon material which is familiar to the students. In the later stages, the questions may elicit personal opinions rather than factual data. Self-expression is rigidly controlled through a graded set of questions, but the ultimate goal is to develop the ability of the students to express themselves.

Free Composition

Although the students are free to express themselves in any way they wish, the topic and the structure are usually tightly controlled by the teacher. In the beginning stages, the students should be asked to give descriptions, summaries, or opinions of familiar material. Examples of such topics where structure and vocabulary are tightly controlled are: "What I did yesterday at school," "What I bought at the supermarket yesterday." As the students gain mastery over vocabulary and structure, they may be given more freedom to write about topics which really interest them.

Letter Writing

Teaching the proper form for writing letters is important. Many students are faced with the need of having to write letters for jobs or to register a complaint. Others need to know how to request forms and merchandise by mail. Letter writing practice is a very valuable and useful activity for adult ESOL students as it has a direct applicability to real-life situations. At the same time, students are able to express themselves without the strict limitations on vocabulary and structure which are imposed in the techniques listed above.

CULTURE

The study of American culture is an important element in the adult learner's ESOL training. As students become more proficient in English, they should not only gain an understanding and mastery of English structure but also become aware of the world view of the American people. This implies a knowledge of activities and behaviors which are part of daily American life. The study of culture is far more than the study of the arts. It involves the study of a way of life culture in the anthropological sense. ESOL teachers have the responsibility to teach our way of life.

The task of teaching culture is not an easy one. The ESOL teacher must first identify those traits which are specific to our culture. They must define themselves and their behavior. This is not an easy definition to formulate, because much of what the ESOL teachers do has been learned in a climate of unawareness. Unless the ESOL teacher has traveled in countries where the people are of other cultures, it is difficult for him to identify those traits which must be taught.

To many of the adult students, the acquisition of the proper behavioral patterns is at least as important as actual verbal proficiency in English. They must know the proper procedures for riding buses, renting apartments, banking, utilizing

community services, and similar services. They should also be made aware of more subtle behavioral traits such as:

1. Spatial relationships: What personal distances are tolerable in various social situations.

2. Temporal relationships: What latitude may be employed in the measurement of time, especially in the business world.

3. Bisexual relationships: What behaviors are expected of males and females.

4. Defense activities: What Americans value and defend (examples: property, democracy).

One of the better guides for establishing these cultural characteristics is contained in Edward T. Hall's The Silent Language.[6] The concept of culture is broken down into ten "primary message systems" which interact on all levels. Hall's later book The Hidden Dimension [7] further explores cross-cultural communication.

One of the basic problems encountered when teaching culture is the paucity of texts which place a sufficient emphasis on culture. Traditionally, many texts do not treat culture as part of the language learning process but as a separate entity, distinct from and secondary to language structure. Therefore, it will be necessary for the ESOL teacher to prepare and develop his own materials when teaching culture. The following devices and strategies can be prepared by the teacher and have been found very useful for promoting cultural understanding:

1. Culture Capsules

   This is a short essay written in English which discusses one characteristic element of the culture (example: report cards). The teacher relates the information and then requests the students to compare the concept with the one which is similar in their culture, if one exists. The teacher then opens a student-oriented question-and-answer discussion of the concept. The development of the culture capsule has led to the formulation of a culture cluster, a series of closely related culture capsules (example: American grading system, report cards, parent reactions to report cards). The cluster can be often transformed into a minidrama in which the students actively participate in the adoption of the American behavioral pattern through a dramatization.

2. Cultural Asides

   These are brief explanations of two or three sentences in length which explain specific cultural traits that have been brought up in class. These may or may not be part of the teacher's lesson plan. The ESOL teacher of adults should take every opportunity to provide the students with cultural insights.

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6. Edward T. Hall, The Silent Language (New York: Doubleday, 1959), pp. 174-175.
7. Edward T. Hall, The Hidden Dimension (New York: Doubleday, 1966).

3. Slices of Life

Through the use of audio-visual aids the teacher provides the students with authentic "slices of life" from the culture. These presentations can be in the form of recordings of current and popular artists, recorded radio programs, newspapers, and other similar items. These presentations should only last a few minutes and are usually presented at the beginning or end of a class.

4. Cultural Assimilator

The students are given a problem situation in written or oral form which is specific to the culture. After the teacher is sure that the students understand the situation, the students are given a series of answers to the problem, all of which are possible solutions. The students must then choose the best of the possible solutions. A discussion of all of the answers follows with the instructor explaining the correct answer and demonstrating why certain solutions are possible, but not desirable in our culture.

5. Media - Newspapers

An excellent medium for teaching culture is the newspaper. There are many sections of the newspaper which are extremely rich in cultural material. Among those sections which have proven useful in adult education ESOL classes are:

a) "Advice" columns: reveal everyday problems of our society and how we try to solve them.

b) Classified ads: demonstrate our system of categorization.

c) Letters to the editor: show what Americans are thinking on issues of national, local, and international interest.

d) Horoscope: shows our superstitions and beliefs in supernatural power.

e) Comic strips: offer a valuable source of cultural information. Their use should be restricted to upper level classes because they often contain slang expressions and stereotyped characters.

6. Paralinguistics

This is an important and often neglected area of language study. The objective of teaching paralinguistics is to make the students aware of and be able to interpret the body signals and natural signs of the language and demonstrate their use. The teaching of gestures is particularly important in that many gestures have varying meanings in other cultures. The assimilation of English language gestures is an essential element of the students' ability to communicate effectively.

The role of culture should be expanded in the ESOL classroom. The materials and techniques utilized in class should integrate culture to the highest degree possible. Cross-cultural understanding is an important goal in the language learning process, and teachers must accept their obligation to teach culture if total language proficiency is to be attained.

TESTING AND EVALUATION

The testing and evaluation of adult education ESOL students is an ongoing process. The use of standardized and teacher prepared tests is generally not advised. In most adult education ESOL classes, the proficiency levels, language backgrounds, and needs of the students vary greatly. This makes the use of formal testing very limited for placement and evaluation.

In the adult education ESOL classes, the individual needs of the students are the primary consideration in placement. Often the instructor faces a group of students with varying proficiencies who do not wish to be separated because of family or ethnic friendships. Other students may display good verbal performances but be very poor in the other skill areas. In the interest of maximum student participation in the Montgomery County Adult Education ESOL Program, it is suggested that discretion be used in assigning individuals to classes of different levels. The assignment to levels must be based upon subjective, informal judgments and other factors such as those outlined above. It is suggested that formal evaluation of the students be kept to a minimum. For many students, a formal test causes fear or embarrassment and does not encourage attendance.

The first classes should serve as informal testing sessions. Through practice in all four skill areas, it is possible to make general observations concerning the students' proficiency and problem areas. These classes are evaluative as well as diagnostic. Decisions as to placement levels should be explained and discussed with each student when necessary.

Promotion to a higher level generally is based upon the student's past performance in a lower level class. Although each case of promotion should be handled individually, it is important that the student not be given false impressions of his proficiency by being promoted to a higher level when, in fact, he has not made significant progress to warrant promotion. Although language proficiency is the greatest factor when consideration is given to promotion of a student, many other factors should be taken into account, such as:

1. Past attendance: Regular attendance indicates interest.

2. Emotional needs: Some students may choose to drop classes if not "promoted." Others must be with friends.

3. Language needs: The student may need a great deal of help with verbal expression but knows grammar well. Beginning level classes would give him more oral practice.

4. Proficiency in the four skill areas: Has the student learned the material covered in each level to an acceptable degree?

The ESOL teacher must evaluate continually and informally and use methods which are designed to test the aural-oral, writing, and reading skills. The results of this continuous evaluation, made on a class to class basis, should be used for planning future lessons for placement and promotion.

It is possible that at some future date Montgomery County will have a center for adult ESOL classes. At that time it may be possible to test all the students before they are placed in classes. An excellent professional test for beginning students is the Ilyin Oral Interview.[8] The drawback to giving this test is that the teacher must spend from ten to twenty minutes testing each student. An advantage of giving this test is that the teacher has a record of the errors that the student has made.

The placement test which is used for intermediate and advanced students is the Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT Structure, Form S-A). The authors of the test are David P. Harris and Leslie A. Palmer. The test is published by McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York. When we have more teachers, it may be possible to use not only the CELT Structure Test but also the CELT Vocabulary Test and CELT Listening Comprehension test.

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8. Donna Ilyin, Ilyin Oral Interview (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, 1972).

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Appendix 1
Educational Materials Laboratory
MONTGOMERY COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The Educational Materials Laboratory provides professional materials and a variety of services to Montgomery County Public Schools employees. The EML has an extensive collection of professional books, periodicals, curriculum guides, reference works including indexes and abstracts, research documents including the complete ERIC file, and numerous publications on Maryland.

The EML staff will assist the user in locating and utilizing the materials in the collection. Requests may be made in writing (send to the Educational Materials Laboratory via pony) or telephone (279-3227 or 279-3228).

The EML Loans:

Textbooks and auxiliary materials to MCPS personnel enrolled in advanced degree or certification courses.

Materials used in In-service courses.

Collections of materials to individual schools for professional development.

Traveling Library collection of current books on recent trends in education.

The EML Duplicates:

Articles from the 400 professional periodical holdings. The EML supplies Education Index to every Teacher Education Center and the Current Index to Journals of Education to each Area Office.

The EML Searches:

Ready-reference questions.

In-depth, literature on specific educational topics. Includes the preparation of bibliographies and dissemination of materials.

ERIC data base either manually or by computer. ERIC query prints out bibliographic information as well as abstracts of educational research.

The EML Refers:

Requests for materials which are not available in the EML collection to their public and private libraries. Most requests can be filled through this Interlibrary Loan service.

Users to other sources whenever indicated for complete information service.

Educational Materials Laboratory
MONTGOMERY COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS
1975 - 1976

Hours for Educational Materials Laboratory

8:30 a.m. - 9:00 p.m.	Monday through Thursday
8:30 a.m. - 5:00 p.m.	Friday
9:00 a.m. - 4:00 p.m.	Saturday

The Educational Materials Laboratory will be closed on the following days:

1975	July	closed evenings and Saturdays
	July 4	Friday (Independence Day)
	August	closed evenings and Saturdays
	September 1	Monday (Labor Day)
	November 27	Thursday (Thanksgiving Day)
	November 28	Friday
	November 29	*Saturday
	December 22	**Monday
	December 23	**Tuesday
	December 24	Wednesday
	December 25	Thursday (Christmas Day)
	December 27	*Saturday
	December 29	**Monday
	December 30	**Tuesday
	December 31	**Wednesday
1976	January 1	Thursday (New Year's Day)
	January 2	Friday
	January 3	*Saturday
	January 15	Thursday (Martin Luther King's Birthday)
	February 14	*Saturday
	February 16	Monday (Washington's Birthday)
	April 12	**Monday
	April 13	**Tuesday
	April 14	**Wednesday
	April 15	**Thursday
	April 16	Friday (Good Friday)
	April 17	*Saturday
	April 19	Monday (Easter Monday)
	May 18	Tuesday (Election Day)
	May 29	*Saturday
	May 31	Monday (Memorial Day)

Phone: (Day and Evening) 279-3227

* We are closed on a Saturday of a holiday weekend.
** We will be closed only during our evening hours, 5:00 - 9:00 p.m.

Appendix 2
Social Services Available in Montgomery County

The following social services agencies may be used by ABE teachers as: (a) sources of free literature; (b) sources for guest speakers; (c) referral agencies for students in need. For a more comprehensive list of agencies, consult the "VOLUNTEER OPPORTUNITIES" booklet in the supervisor's office.

American Red Cross
2020 East-West Highway
Silver Spring, Maryland 20910
Harriet Robinson - 588-2515

Maryland Citizens Consumer Council
P.O. Box 5767
Bethesda, Maryland 20014
Harriet Harris - 365-2273
Lois Sacks - 299-5686

Montgomery County Housing Authority
1400 Fenwick Lane
Silver Spring, Maryland 20910
Jackie Simon - 588-0100

Department of Social Services
5630 Fishers Lane
Rockville, Maryland 20852

Project Head Start
6300 Tilden Lane
Rockville, Maryland 20850
Rita Penn - 881-1855

Montgomery County Health Department
611 Rockville Pike
Rockville, Maryland 20850
Jean Cross - 279-1661

Literacy Council of Montgomery County
112 W. Montgomery Avenue
Rockville, Maryland 20851
Martha Dunham - 762-7323

Over 60 Counseling & Employment Services
4700 Norwood Drive
Chevy Chase, Maryland 20902
Jean Hughes - 933-2300

Human Relations Commission
205 Maryland Avenue
Rockville, Maryland 20850
Lois Hacky - 279-1891

Montgomery County Association for Retarded Citizens
11212 Norris Drive
Silver Spring, Maryland 20902
Peg Gorham - 949-1454

Office of Consumer Affairs
24 Maryland Avenue (S. Perry Street)
Rockville, Maryland 20850
Judy Doctor - 340-1010

Mental Health Association
Hotline, Middle Earth
10920 Connecticut Avenue
Kensington, Maryland 20795
Harriet Guttenberg - 949-8837

American Cancer Society
344 University Boulevard West
Silver Spring, Maryland 20901
J. Gilman - 593-3055

Montgomery County Heart Association
7847 Old Georgetown Road
Bethesda, Maryland 20014
James Thomas - 657-8878

Montgomery County Association for Children with Learning Disabilities
P.O. Box 623
Rockville, Maryland 20851
Mooza Grand - 652-5059

Rockville Free Clinic
207 Maryland Avenue
Rockville, Maryland 20850
Jim Bullman - 424-3928

Bache Memorial Free Clinic
6701 Wisconsin Avenue
Chevy Chase, Maryland 20015
Bonnie Distad - 656-3222

Mobile Medical Care, Inc.
10100 New Hampshire Avenue
Silver Spring, Maryland
Anne Allen - 434-6744

Appendix 2 Cont.

Citizen Action Group (Ralph Nader)
2000 P Street NW., #503
Washington, D.C. 20036

Clinical Center NIH
9000 Wisconsin Avenue
Bethesda, Maryland 20014
Delbert Nye - 496-4763

TESS Center
8513 Piney Branch Road
Silver Spring, Maryland
587-7252

Appendix 3
Sources of Free Materials

In the field of adult basic education, the wise administrator or teacher recognizes the value of the many available resources in his local community, his county or parish, state, and at the national level.

From the local public library, simple reading books, films, recordings, and pictures can be secured. The librarian may be of assistance in planning programs for special occasions.

The post office can supply change-of-address cards, money-order application blanks, copies of pamphlets on postal rules and regulations, and postage rates for letters, newspapers, and packages.

The railroad and bus depots can supply time-tables, schedules, and the history of the railroads in pamphlet and comic book form.

Telegraph forms and suggestions for messages for many occasions may be secured from the Western Union office.

Deposit and withdrawal slips, blank checks, calendars, and pamphlets on banking may be secured from the bank.

Maps, charts, pictures of products and commodities, booklets, pamphlets, and samples of products may be obtained from business and industry, local stores, or food companies.

The local newspaper will occasionally take pictures of the class or cover events of interest, supply newsprint for use in making charts, and lend pictures from files for class use.

First-hand information on health rules and pamphlets and illustrative materials on guarding against disease may be obtained from insurance companies, health services, hospitals, doctors, and the Public Health Service.

For informational but noninstructional materials on adult elementary education at the national level, a few of the resources are U.S. Office of Education, The Immigration and Naturalization Service of the U.S.A., the Department of Justice, the National Education Association, the Adult Education Association of the U.S.A., and the National Association for Public School Adult Education.

Local fire and police departments will frequently provide speakers, materials, and demonstrations.

Many public libraries have large record-sections. Some rent films and filmstrips for a very small fee.